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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses distinguishing features of site-based management, theories supporting site-based management, examples of current practices, and special education implications. Part I presents issues concerning the implementation of site-based management as a restructuring process, including obstacles in implementing site-based management, vehicles for developing and implementing campus site-based management, the principal's role, critical elements to successful implementation, theoretical basis, and useful concepts from organizational theory. Part II provides examples and makes recommendations to aid policy makers in creating programs that address special education issues in the context of site-based management. It presents the Evaluation of Phases Model as an assessment activity prior to restructuring, and then proposes the following policies, accompanied by rationale and recommendations: (1) site-based management should be supported by drastic changes in organizational structures and procedures to result in improved educational outcomes for all children; (2) site-based management should promote the inclusion of students with disabilities; (3) changes in policies and procedures are necessary to enable effective special education practices in the context of site-based management; (4) site-based management should integrate regular and special education; and (5) site-based management should result in improved quality of programming and services to students with special needs. (Contains approximately 60 references.) (JDD)

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A White Paper

Site-Based Management and Special Education: Theories, Implications and Recommendations

Paper Presented to:
University Council for Educational Administration
October 30-November 1, 1992

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Running Head: SITE-BASED MANAGEMENT AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

This document is an effort to explore issues related to students with disabilities and the restructuring of education. The adoption of site-based management as a method of restructuring schools has become a nationwide trend, as exemplified by Texas legislation mandates to implement site-based management at all campuses by fall, 1992 (Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992). This white paper discusses distinguishing features of site-based management, theories supporting site-based management, examples of current practices, and special education implications. Part I presents the issues concerning the implementation of site-based management as a restructuring process. Different research perspectives are presented to provide information to policy makers at different levels.

The purpose of Part II is two-fold. The primary purpose is to stimulate the thinking among those who are in positions to impact the learning outcomes of students with disabilities and the programs that serve them within the context of site-based management. A secondary purpose is to provide examples and make recommendations to aid policy makers in creating programs that address special education issues in the context of site-based management.

PART I: ISSUES CONCERNING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SITE-BASED MANAGEMENT

What is Site-Based Management/Site-Based Decision-Making/ Site-Based Improvement?

These three terms denote the same restructuring movement currently afoot in American schools. Each term denotes a thorough restructuring of school organization patterns and of the assignment of roles and responsibilities to all the school organization stakeholders. Site-based management is a system designed to improve education by increasing the authority of the actors at the school site as

simply stated by Clune and White (1988). The Texas Education Agency (TEA) in its resource guide to school districts expanded the definition; TEA (1992) defines site-based management as follows:

> Site-based decision making is a process for decentralizing decisions to improve educational outcomes at every school campus through a collaborative effort by which principals, teachers, campus staff, district staff, parents, and community representatives assess educational outcomes of all students, determine goals and strategies, and ensure that strategies are implemented and adjusted to improve student achievement (p. II-1).

What is the expected outcome of site-based management?

The expected outcome of site-based management is improved student performance (Cawelti, 1989; Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992; TEA, 1992). This expectation is founded in the belief that better decisions will be made by placing decision-making authority as close to the action as possible — that is, at the campus level where educators and other stakeholders are likely to be most aware of students', staffs' and district's needs, and therefore likely to make the best decisions (Clune & White, 1988).

How is site-based management different from other educational reform movements?

Site-based management is a process, not a product, for ensuring that goals are met (Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992; TEA, 1992). This restructuring process encompasses changes in three dimensions of the school operation:

1) changes in teaching and learning,

2) changes in the roles of educators,

3) changes in the distribution of power between schools and their clients (Elmore, 1990).

How does site-based management differ from traditional school structures and practices?

Site-based management differs significantly from traditional school organization practices in the following ways:

* goals are determined on a campus level from a campus needs assessment and outcome data
* activities are self-initiated and self-directed by the campus staff
* budget development and allocation of resources are campus-controlled
* student performance evaluation is individualized and ongoing
* staff selection criteria is guided by standards developed on campus within the context of state and district guidelines
* campus organizational structure is arranged functionally to encourage and facilitate shared team decision making and input
* the campus staff verify that site-based management is established and working (TEA, 1992).

What are the obstacles in implementing site-based management?

The obstacles to site-based management include:

1. Sacrifice — true restructuring is hard work and takes time
2. Money — time is money, release time and stipends must be available to accomplish the tasks
3. Talk — time to talk through issues and really reach consensus
4. Outside perspectives — must involve parents and community in process
5. Fear and rumor — change causes fears and rumors, team must be ready for change
6. Political compromise — no one can be satisfied with every aspect of the program, "sink or compromise" is the motto

7. Creative flexibility — do not lock self into a plan and a process without the hope of modification or change (Westerberg & Brickley, 1991).

What is the vehicle for developing and implementing campus site-based management?

Campus councils, improvement teams, or committees composed of interested stakeholders such as parents, teachers, administrators, community members, and other building staff as well as students (at the high school level) are the vehicles for developing and implementing site-based management. The selection, composition, size and responsibilities of these teams/councils vary from district to district, from campus to campus, and from ad hoc purpose to purpose (Clune & White, 1988). Council/teams may be assigned responsibilities regarding curriculum, department and/or school budgeting, or staffing patterns, as examples.

Who is accountable in site-based management?

The site-based management process attempts to make all stakeholders accountable to the degree and level in which they participate — be that participation on the campus council/team level through to the superintendent or school board member. Ultimately, the principal is accountable for all the activities within her/his building, while the superintendent is responsible to the board of education, and the board to state and federal authorities.

What is the principal's role in site-based management?

The building principal will become more overtly accountable for operation of the whole school – its instruction, programming, and activities. Site-based management will expand these roles of the principal to include:

1. accountability for the total school operation
2. defining and delineating tasks
3. retention of certain decision-making choices

4. commitment to two-way communication
5. identification of problem areas for site-based management team consideration
6. obtains pertinent information
7. obtains district resources
8. responsibility for site-based management team decisions
9. accountable for student learning
10. communicates with all stakeholders
11. responsible for annual school status reports (TEC Section 21.931 (B) (3)).

Are there statutory limits on site-based management's range of authority?

Yes. Campus councils/teams, principals, superintendents, and boards of education must continue to follow the mandates of such federal laws as Chapter I, and Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Section 504, as well as state statutes (Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992).

What are the critical elements to successful implementation of site-based management?

The implementation process for site-based management occurs at two levels--district and campus. When implementing the process at the district level, administration should consider six critical elements: ongoing district support, training, new budgeting practices, time, access to information and communication to ensure success (American Association of School Administrators, National Association of Elementary School Principals & National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1990). First, it is critical to have the ongoing support of the board and the superintendent, since site-based management involves a fundamental change in decision-making. Second, this new style of management requires

substantial, continuous training prior to and during its implementation within the district. Training should focus on the skills of consensus building, brainstorming, problem solving, managing change and interpersonal communication skills such as conflict resolution, value clarification, negotiation, etc. (Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992; Blokker, 1991). Third, in site-based management the budget shifts from allocation by formulas to allocation by objective. Thus a large part of the responsibility for the budgeting process is transferred to campus level. Along with this new responsibility comes more accountability for the results schools achieve. Fourth, implementing site-based management requires inordinate amounts of time to change role definitions, train district staff, educate the community, establish objectives, develop and implement programs, and monitor program success. Fifth, in order to establish objectives and develop and implement programs to meet those objectives, schools require access to timely and accurate information. Finally, since site-based management is an inclusionary process, that is, district staff, parents and community members are involved in the decision-making process, systematic communication among everyone is of high priority.

In Texas, the State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making (1992) suggests the following 16 steps to develop a district plan for site-based management.

1. Review all laws in regard to site-based management.
2. Review all communication from the Texas Education Agency related to district and campus planning, decision-making, and academic excellence indicators.
3. Re-examine local district policies to determine if current procedures for establishing state-required advisory decision-making committees are

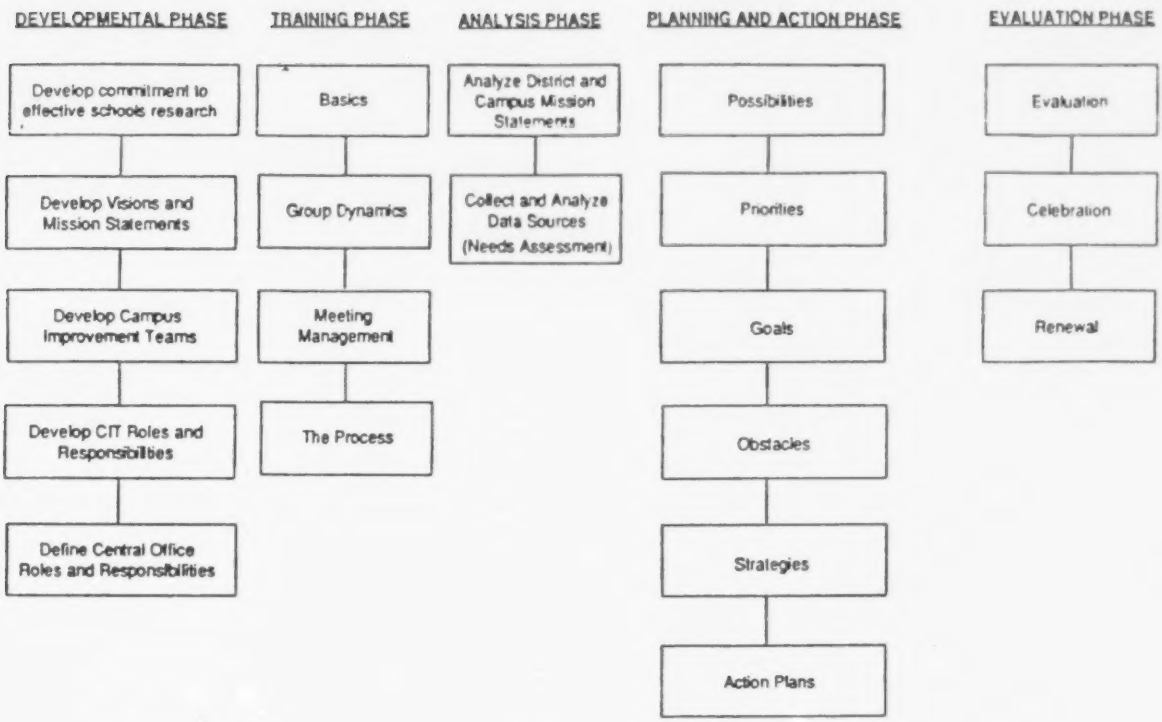
meeting legal requirements.

4. Provide district and community awareness sessions to inform school employees and the public in regard to site-based management.
5. Establish methods of collaboration which will ensure school staff, student, parent and community participation.
6. Develop a plan with timelines for training district staff and community members in information and skills needed to implement site-based management.
7. Revise district procedures to define committees' roles and responsibilities.
8. Determine which budgeting practices should be decentralized and specify the mechanisms for how this process should occur.
9. Review policies regarding contractual agreements and ensure they comply with current laws. Determine procedures for campus committees' input into staffing decisions.
10. Determine the role of campus committees in regard to curriculum development.
11. Review all district planning activities and determine which should be consolidated, eliminated or provide input to district and/or campus committees.
12. Determine parameters and procedures for campus committees' input into school organization decisions.
13. Ensure all campus committees have access to current and accurate student performance data and that appropriate indictors exist for special-needs populations.
14. Ensure all campus committees are aware that they may request waivers from laws or rules that inhibit student achievement.

15. Develop mechanisms for accountability among campuses.
16. Train board members, the superintendent, school staff and community members in their new site-based management roles and responsibilities.

When implementing site-based management at the campus level, the Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making (1992) suggests that district and campus committees follow a five phase shared decision making through teaming implementation plan (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Shared Decision Making Through Teaming -- Implementation Plan.



Texas Education Code, Section 21.931 (B) (3).

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The five phases are: development, training, analysis, planning and action, and evaluation. In the developmental phase, the district level committee develops a commitment to the effective schools research (i.e. instructional focus, positive school climate, teacher behavior and high expectations, assessment, parent and community participation and campus resource allocation). With the assistance from the superintendent and principals, the committee develops district visions and mission statements, establishes campus committees or campus improvement teams (as they are called in Texas) to identify objectives and develop programs to accomplish those objectives, and delineates campus improvement team and central office roles and responsibilities, particularly in the areas of school organization, curriculum, staff development, budgeting, personnel and evaluation .

During the training phase, the district level committee provides school staff and community members with information on the history, relevance and procedures of site-based management. Training in group dynamics, conflict resolution, and other skills takes place .

In the analysis phase, campus improvement teams analyze district and campus mission statements for understanding and support by district employees and community members. Teams also gather, analyze and disaggregate data by such factors as grade level, age, ethnicity, etc..

During the planning and action phase, campus improvement teams brainstorm school and student needs and determine those needs which have highest priority and set goals and objectives

In the final phase of evaluation, campus improvement teams conduct formative evaluation and modify efforts to ensure accomplishment of goals and objectives and perform annual summative evaluation to determine program success and

accomplishment of objectives (Texas Education Agency State Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992).

What is the theoretical basis for site-based management?

Efforts to decentralize the organizational structure of education are grounded in management theory. Peter Drucker (1954) states that all organizational structures must have the goals of performance, least number of management levels, and training and testing of future managers . To satisfy these requirements, organizational structures must apply, to the greatest extent possible, one of two forms of decentralization .

Federal decentralization organizes activities into autonomous units which are responsible for their product. Functional decentralization sets up integrated units with maximum responsibility for major and distinct stages in accomplishing the goals of the organization. Site-based management of schools is an attempt to apply functional decentralization in which each school would be as independent as possible and responsible for outcomes .

In many states, efforts toward site-based management of schools have come about as a result of reports and growing public perception that the schools are failing to accomplish their mission. Many individuals with the power to make policy in education feel that the failures of schools result from inadequate or inappropriate organizational structures. From an organizational perspective, malorganization is indicated by any of the following conditions:

* growth of levels of management
* failure to remove poor performers
* overcentralization, and
* special measures to coordinate activities and communication (Drucker, 1954, pp. 224-226).

These conditions seem to describe the results of centralization which became increasingly prevalent in education during the 1960's and 1970's.

What is Hage's axiomatic theory and what hypotheses does it yield regarding site-based management?

Jerald Hage (1963) has developed an axiomatic theory of organizations which provides a very useful framework for examining organizational change. The theory uses the variables of complexity, centralization, formalization, stratification, adaptiveness, production, efficiency, and job satisfaction and relates these variable using seven propositions which can be used to derive twenty-one corollaries.

The organizational means of complexity, centralization, formalization, and stratification are altered as a school district moves toward site-based management. Centralization would decrease as a larger proportion of positions participate in decision-making. Formalization would tend to decrease as the proportion of jobs that are codified by the organization decrease and the organizational reliance on rules and regulations decreases. Complexity is predicted to increase as a result of decentralization as educators become increasingly specialized. The stratification system may only have minor changes. Although teachers prefer professional systems, they do not, in general, seem to favor systems which differentiate between teachers and assign a professional ranking (Firestone & Bader, 1991). This may be due to the fact that career ladders and other methods of increased stratification which have been used thus far have been imposed by the bureaucracy and not from the profession itself. The strong democratic values of the teaching profession may also inhibit increased stratification.

Assuming then, that site-based management is associated with decreased centralization, increased complexity, decreased overall formalization, and mild decreases in stratification, Hage's axiomatic theory (1963) indicates the following

changes in organizational ends. Efficiency, as measured by the cost per unit of output per year or the amount of idle resources per year, would decrease. However, there is evidence which indicates that quality of production, as defined by student outcomes, would increase . Production, as defined by the number of units produced or the rate of increase in units produced, would decrease. Adaptiveness, or flexibility, as measured by the number of new programs or new techniques would increase as would job satisfaction as measured by satisfaction with working conditions and turnover rates.

Overall, trends toward site-based management indicate a move toward a more organic mode of organization. Hage and Aiken (1967) examined the relationship of centralization to other structural properties using an empirical approach and found support for the axiomatic theory. The study also directly looked at increases in shared decision-making about allocation of organizational resources and levels of professional activity. Using analysis of social welfare and health agencies, Hage and Aiken (1967) found small negative relationships between participation in decision-making and job codification and between decision-making participation and rule observation. A fairly strong (r=.30) relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the number of operational specialties, a measure of centralization. Professional activity and training was found to be negatively correlated with hierarchy of authority. The axiom that complexity and centralization are negatively related was strongly supported. The overall study seems to indicate that as organizations become complex, there are two different and viable ways to structure power in the organization. A decentralized arrangement relies upon skills and expertise of members of the organization, in other words, a professional structure. Alternatively, a centralized approach emphasizes rules.

Using Hage's theory, site-based management implies not only decentralization,

but increased satisfaction and adaptiveness as well.

What is the "zone of indifference" and according to theory, how will it be affected by efforts toward site-based management?

Chester Barnard (cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991) contributed the concept of "zone of indifference" to organizational theory. The concept refers to the total group of possible directives from a superior that are completely and unquestionably acceptable to a subordinate.

Herbert Simon (1957) used a similar "zone of acceptance" to describe how decisions by superordinates are perceived by subordinates. Simon's theory is based upon two variables: relevancy and expertise. If the issue being decided is relevant and the subordinates have expertise, then it is outside the zone of acceptance, and participation will be most effective it is sought early and expertise is maximized. Similarly, if it is relevant but the subordinates do not have expertise, the issue is outside the zone of acceptance, but involvement of subordinates may result in the perception that decisions have already been made and that is an empty exercise.

If an issue is not very relevant and the subordinates do not have expertise, the matter is inside the zone of acceptance and subordinates are more willing to accept decisions of the leader. Requiring participation could cause frustration. If the issue has a low relevance but the subordinates have high expertise, then the issue is also inside the zone of acceptance (Simon, 1957). Involvement of subordinates in decision making increases the possibility of alienation as they perceive that they are being forced to do the leader's job. Site-based management centers around efforts to involve subordinates in decisions formerly made by superordinates.

Simon's theory (1957) suggests that the competence of the subordinates and the relevancy of the issue being decided will determine the effect of participation. The

theory also suggests that training must be a key part of moves toward site-based management so that competence can be increased. Finally, the theory suggests that not all decisions are suited for participatory decision-making. Individuals wishing to implement site-based management need to carefully analyze the relevancy of each issue and the competency of each participant.

How does Mintzberg's Typology of Bureaucracies apply to efforts to move toward site-based management?

Henry Mintzberg has developed a typology of organizations which accounts for the increased role of the teachers and decentralization in many educational organizations. An adaptation of this typology (see Figure 2) was prepared by Hoy and Miskel (1991, pp.134-135).

Figure 2. Typology of Bureaucracies.

Organizational Property	Simple-professional Bureaucracy	Semiprofessional Bureaucracy
Structure	Mechanistic	Mechanistic
Centralization	Moderate	Low
Formalization	Moderate	Low
Specialization	High	High
Key part	Apex and Core and core	Technostructure
Integrating principle	Formal & professional authority	Professional authority
Goals	A single set of of goals	Multiple sets of goals
Dominant source of power	Administrators and teachers	Teachers and administrators
Coordination of Instruction	Direct supervision and standardization of skills	Standardization of skills and of instruction
Expected conflict	Limited	Low
Coupling	Moderately tight	Moderately loose
Possible example	Secondary school	Secondary School

Hoy, W. K, & Miskel, C. (1991). Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice. (4th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

While the Mintzberg typology contains other structures, only the semiprofessional bureaucracy and simple-professional bureaucracy are shown here because they represent the forms that emerge as an educational organization moves toward site-based management.

Mintzberg examines organizations according to five basic parts (1979). The strategic apex is the top management, the ultimate power and responsibility in the organization. In a school district, the strategic apex consists of the superintendent and the school board. The operating core is the part of the organization which does the basic work of the organization. In a school, the operating core consists of classroom teachers. The middle line consists of intermediate mangers who coordinate the operation of the operating core and mediate between the operating core and the strategic apex. In a school district, principals are the middle line. The technostructure designs and plans the work to be done by the operating core. In many school districts, the curriculum department and related elements function as the technostructure. Furthermore, State Departments of Education, in some states, through mandated texts, teacher certification requirements, teacher evaluation instruments, and curriculum requirements, act as part of the technostructure. The support staff provides indirect services to the rest of the organization. In schools, the support staff provides functions such as food service, maintenance, accounting, and transportation.

Professionalization and site-based management imply that coordination takes place through the standardization of skills of employees. Therefore, the technostructure need not be very elaborate as the profession itself standardizes the work. The operating core is the key part of the organization and the support staff tends to be rather elaborate to back up the work of the professionals. According to Mintzberg, the middle line need not be very elaborate in the professional forms.

What are some additional concepts from organizational theory which are useful for analyzing site-based management?

Blau and Schoenherr (1971) have a different view of management of professional employees and present an argument for the importance of an extensive management structure. Blau and Schoenherr (1971) propose that management cannot give free rein to professionals because there is often a conflict between professional and administrative considerations. But, if management seriously impinges upon professionals in the exercise of their responsibilities, it risks defections and dissatisfaction. Furthermore, professionals have a natural interest in perfecting the operations of the organization in as much as this enables the professional to do his or her professional duty. The channeling of this energy of professionals requires frequent contact between professional and administrative concerns. These considerations suggest that a low number of professionals per administrator can be beneficial as increased communication is facilitated. A high managerial ratio, which implies a dispersed management, promotes extensive vertical communication in the hierarchy of authority, both in the upward and downward directions. Using Mintzberg's typology, several potential organizational conflicts in schools moving toward site-based management can be identified. There is a desire or tendency to centralize by top management, to formalize by the technostructure, and to professionalize by the teachers.

In general, the bureaucratic view of teaching is that education is a field with only limited uncertainty. Therefore, teachers can readily define and solve problems they are faced with by selecting solutions from a finite set. In this view, theory is prescriptive. A professional view emphasizes the uncertainty in teaching. Education is viewed as a complex process in which judgment is supported by a large base of knowledge. Theory informs and supplements judgment, but teachers

must use their individual expertise in dealing with the uncertainties and complexities of teaching.

A study by Firestone and Bader (1991) contains many interesting observations concerning the difference between a professional and bureaucratic orientation. The authors began by looking at efforts to redesign teaching. They focused on the planning process of these changes and report that the more teachers are involved in planning, the more professional the form of the final redesign effort will be.

Firestone and Bader (1991) examine programs for redesigning teaching in terms of five dimensions: authority and autonomy, collegiality, rank and remuneration, changed tasks, and changed organizational form. The distribution of authority in a way that increases teachers' autonomy is consistent with professionalization. The bureaucratic position is that since knowledge rests at higher levels in the hierarchy, redesign should increase centralization.

Collegiality is also associated with professionalism. A professional orientation rests upon the profession as a reference group. Colleagues, then, are an important source of information and development of skills. Firestone and Bader (1991) observe that remuneration in a professional orientation is based on a teacher-controlled hierarchy based on skill and performance. A bureaucratic orientation, in contrast, uses remuneration primarily to reward compliance with rules, regulations, and standards set by the bureaucracy. In a bureaucratic structure, the differentiation of teachers is not important because the significant difference in knowledge is not among teachers but between teachers and administrators.

Yukl (1981) observed that the professional orientation serves as a neutralizer as well as a substitute for instrumental leadership and supportive leadership if subordinates look primarily to similar professionals rather than to their boss for approval, recognition, and standards of performance.

Part II: Implications for Special Education

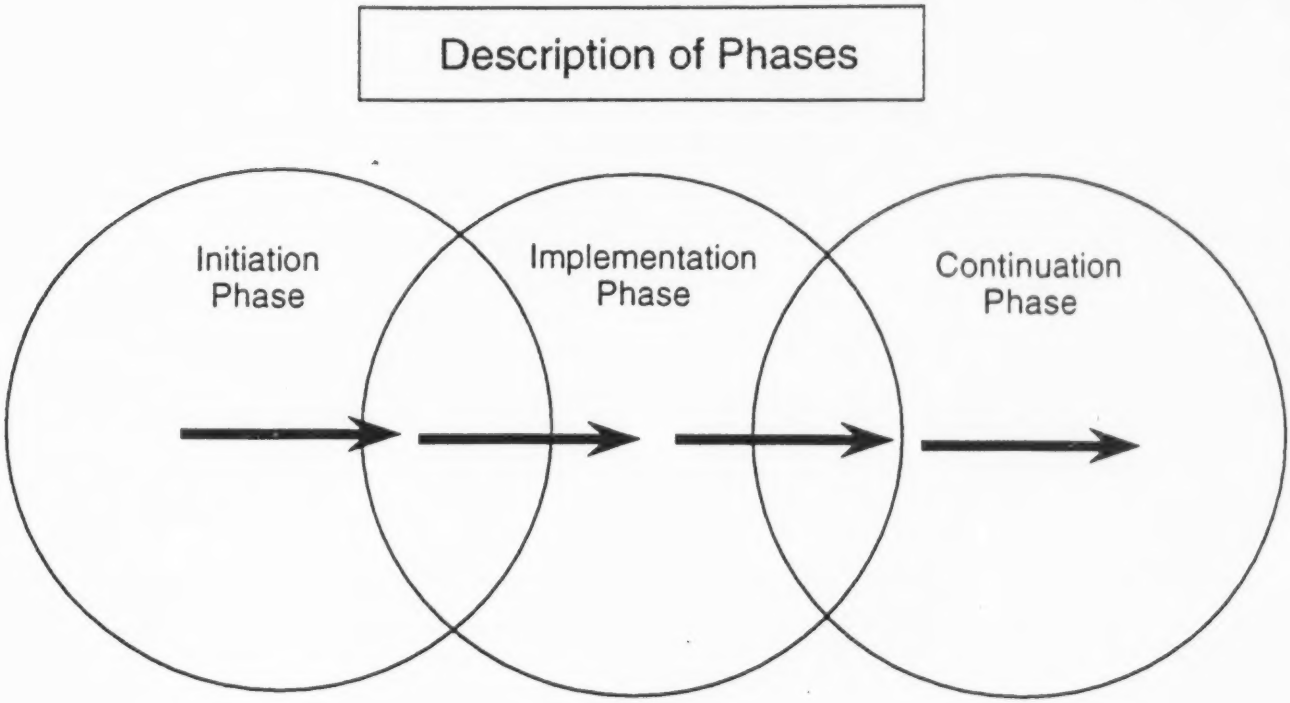
Evaluation of Phases Model

It is recognized that evaluation and redirection are necessary procedures at all phases of site based management implementation. Therefore, the Evaluation of Phases Framework (see Figure 3) developed by Hasazi, Schattman, Johnston, and Liggett (1992) will be useful for each school as an initial assessment activity prior to beginning restructuring of their school campus organization, and possibly the "way things are done".

Factors which stakeholders must consider prior to initiating school restructuring include:

* finance – the economic health of the state and local district for both special and regular education
* organizational factors – service delivery mechanisms, such as regional service centers, special education services may inhibit or promote change
* advocacy – the role played by individuals and groups whose purposes are to increase options for students while developing and maintaining consistent educational standards
* implementors – identification of those individuals who will be charged with decision–making responsibilities, both vertically and horizontally within the district structure
* values – the values that have been identified and acknowledged as the ethical basis for educating students;
* knowledge – access to sources of additional training and staff development
* governmental context – relationship between federal, state and local educational agencies as well as federal and state statutory mandates (Hasazi, Schattman, Johnston, & Liggett ,1992).

Figure 3. Description of Phases and Evaluation.



Hasazi, S. B., Schattman, R., Johnston, A. P., & Liggett, A. (1992, April). Description of phases and evaluation. In the national study of the implementation of least restrictive environment: An overview of methods and findings. Paper presented at the 70th Annual Council for Exceptional Children, Baltimore, MD .

Each site-based management campus can use this framework to access its initial level of receptivity to change, as well as an assessment tool for on–going evaluation of reform policy implementation. See Appendix A for further explanation of this evaluation framework.

The remaining section of this paper proposes policies statements that these authors believe represent and reflect the true spirit of educating ***all*** students through a site-based management system. Appendix B provides the framework of organizational structures for the development of policy statements that impact special education practices. The student is the focus and is central to all policy statements and decisions.

Site-based management should be supported by drastic changes in organizational structures and procedures so that site-based management will result in improved educational outcomes for *all* children.

Rationale

Changes in educational organizations, including changes toward site-based management, may not be substantive because of organizational factors. There are many reasons for the reluctance of educational organizations to make meaningful change, but chief among these are the basic assumptions of educational administration.

Educational administration is based upon a scientific approach to management instead of educational psychology, curriculum theory, etc. Because of the management approach, students with disabilities are segregated into separate classrooms and programs in the interest of school organizational efficiency (Skrtic, 1987).

Bureaucracies tend to resist change. In many cases, this is accomplished by

Recommendations

•Examine and implement new organizational models which address the needs of all students

For example, a matrix organizational structure, because of the unique characteristics of educational organizations, may facilitate the creation of an integrated instructional delivery system (Yates, 1982). In a matrix system, all structures are integrated and coordinated so that uncertainty and confusion resulting from a dual, loosely-coupled system can be eliminated.

A matrix structure depends upon a flattened hierarchy and a reciprocal independence coordination system. For example, instead of the confusion and ambiguity which often exists concerning the chain of command between special education personnel, special education directors, and principals, the matrix organization would involve all of these individuals in an integrated approach which stresses problem-solving.

Another way to conceptualize the matrix organization is to use Mintzberg's "adhocracy" (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). In an adhocracy, professionals work together but within a very minimal bureaucratic structure. The purpose of the adhocracy is to solve a particular problem, after which the structure either dissolves or tackles a new problem. The coordination is reciprocal; outputs and inputs move in a relatively random fashion within the adhocracy during the collaborative process.

•Balance relief from centralized control, rules, and regulations which impede site-based management with accountability

It will do little good to move toward site-based management unless centralization is decreased to allow for more decisions to be made at school sites. However, this does not mean that the organization will eliminate all centralized functions. "Decentralization requires strong guidance from the center through the

setting of clear, meaningful, and high objectives for the whole. Decentralization also requires control by measurements" (Drucker, 1954, p. 214). This may be accomplished by districts setting broad mission statements and goals while individual campuses will be expected to meet these goals. Individual campuses will be held accountable for meeting these goals but methods to determine how to achieve these goals will be identified and implemented by the site-based management teams.

Site-based management, like all decentralization, relies upon the judgment and expertise of professionals and managers at lower levels of the organizational structure. In order to maintain quality and insure coordination across the entire organization, each unit must be accountable to common or congruent standards. "An emphasis on results and doing the right things...requires independent decision making and autonomy, while it increases accountability and requires detailed attention to the assessment of performance" (Schlechty, 1992, p. 7).

•*Define roles and functions within the organization*

There are functions which cannot and should not be decentralized. Chief among these are a) the development and articulation of the guiding goals of the school system and b) the development and specifications of the indicators that would be used to assess the effectiveness with which goals are pursued. As Philip Schlechty (1992) writes, "If both equity and excellence are ends worthy of pursuit, then determination of the goals to be pursued and the standards of performance to be acceptable in this pursuit cannot be left up to individual building units" (p.7).

•*Focus all efforts toward change on the human element and the power of moral commitment*

Meaningful organizational change in schools must include a change in organizational culture and a new paradigm for providing education. Unless the

knowledge and traditions are changed, special education students will be labeled not because the distinction is useful, but because the students do not fit any existing knowledge of the regular education program. Despite skill and commitment, professionals can confuse the needs of clients with the skills he or she has to offer them. It is therefore imperative that professionals acquire the skills and knowledge necessary to provide services which are congruent with best practices. Teachers need to have more research based information on what to teach particular types of learners and how to arrange the instructional environment to promote skill acquistion and usage (Wolery, 1991).

Within each site moving toward site-based management there must be an ongoing dialogue about the tacit assumptions of the organization. These tacit assumptions are the foundation for the organizational culture and the paradigm upon which all organizational actions are based.

The full inclusion of special education students and integration of special education programs will require not only changes in policy but new assumptions about the nature of relationships within the organization. Collegial relationships must replace the relative autonomy of loosely-coupled systems. Assumptions about human nature must also change so that the rights and dignity of all students are respected (Rogoff & Morell, 1989).

Efforts to change schools cannot be meaningful unless the efforts are centered upon a continuous moral dialogue for it is beliefs and values which motivate professionals continuously, not new sets of rules, regulations, and expectations. This moral dialogue must exist in and across each part of the organization. As stated so succinctly by Peter Drucker (1954), "Decentralization...requires a common citizenship throughout the enterprise. It is unity through diversity" (p.221).

Site-based management should promote the inclusion of students with disabilities.

Rationale

Inclusion of students and adults with disabilities is embedded in federal legislation such as Public Law 101-476, Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA) passed in 1990, and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. The least restrictive environment (LRE) language of IDEA mandates that services be provided to eligible persons at the site/locale where they would normally attend if they did not have a disability and which is most appropriate to meet their needs. Including individuals with disabilities at all levels of the educational enterprise is the law, for students as constituent clients of the school, and for adults as parents, and for employees of the school as put forth in the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1992.

One of the goals of education is obtaining competitive employment and "you can't achieve that without exposing kids to the real world in schools," states Thomas Hehir, Director of Special Education, Chicago Public Schools (Ervin, 1991, p.12). Consequently, inclusion as policy and practice is necessary.

Current patterns of operating special education rigidly from the central office ignores the loosely-coupled nature of school systems. Schools are semi-autonomous units with their primary source of leadership being the building principal, not the central office (Hehir, Stariha, & Walberg, 1991). The transference of authority and responsibility to building level administrators and staff by reconfiguring organizational patterns serves to confirm that which has existed in varying degrees at the building level.

Schattman and Benay (1992) suggested that schools adopting an inclusive approach to special education should consider at least the following variables:

1. the relationship between inclusion and the occurring school reform,
2. the use of teaming approaches for problem-solving and program implementation, and
3. the changes in the roles of professionals and parents in inclusive schools.

Failure to place the responsibility for educating students with disabilities with the schools will continue to reinforce separate and unequal forms of education (Hehir, Stariha, & Walberg, 1991). For inclusion programs to be successful, system-wide policies must be established, accompanied by provisions to allow decisions to be based on individual needs at the building level (Thomas, 1991). Hehir, Stariha, & Walberg (1991) suggest the following guidelines for inclusion be followed when developing system-wide inclusion policy:

* natural proportions of students with or without disabilities
* principals are responsible for all students
* students should attend the school they would attend with their natural cohort group, if they were not disabled
* education delivered in age-appropriate settings
* education delivered as much as possible in regular classrooms
* special education teachers and therapists should work as much as possible ***within*** the regular classroom to support students with disabilities
* non-categorical individualized approaches for all students with disabilities
* providing support to students does not depend upon labeling and the development of the IEP

Recommendations

•*Communicate and make decisions horizontally as well as vertically*

Despite site-based management and/or restructuring, a form of bureaucracy will continue to exist within schools and school districts. The new configuration of

organization, authority, responsibility, and delivery of special education services will have new participants, such as parents of students with and without disabilities, and interested community people. It must be recognized that students are educated by schools, not bureaucracies, and educators are responsible for that education.

•*Share the responsibility of educating all students equally between regular and special education*

Each school and its administration and staff must take ***ownership*** of their responsibility to educate all students, with or without disabilities (Hehir, Stariha, & Walberg, 1991). The concept of a students' *home school* should be maintained whether or not the student may require delivery of services temporarily in a more restrictive environment. "We can no longer assume that a kid with a disability is the responsibility of the central office" (Reform, 1991, p. 4).

• *Change the vision to include educating all students*

Principals must take more active roles in educating the disabled (Reform, 1991). Principals must be knowledgeable about the needs of students with disabilities and be supportive of programs that promote integration socially, academically, physically. Teachers, parents and members of the community will need to be involved in all aspects of planning and implementing a total educational environment. A familiarity of how change impacts an organization will provide the principal guidance in redefining the community we educate.

•*Provide staff development to all stakeholders*

The implementation of site-based management and inclusion will require the development and implementation of a variety of stakeholder development training programs and supporting organizational structures and accompanying staff (Ervin, 1991). Such stakeholder development programs could include, but are not limited

to:

* Creation of a parent training and support department which could be staffed solely by parents of students with disabilities or by various combinations of stakeholders (Ervin, 1991, p. 13)
* Awareness training
* Rewards and recognition of stakeholders
* Training in communication, collaboration, compromise, and consensus building
* Creation of an site-based management ombudsman department to facilitate implementation and respond to inquiries.

• *Educate students with disabilities in their home schools, not in residential facilities*

Private providers of educational services to students with disabilities may be resistant to broadened application of the least restrictive environment and inclusion because it may result in the return of students to their home as well as to their home school. An ultimate consequence being a decline in their profits (Ervin, 1991). Development of cooperative service models between private education providers and public schools is one option which could be implemented in order to provide appropriate services in the appropriate venue.

•*Provide central office support to regular and special education*

Monitoring of inclusion continues to be a role of central office (Hehir, Stariha, & Walberg, 1991). Monitoring and providing support is very different from running special education programs, and reflects a vital part of the continued role of special education central office in the site-based management school. The local campuses should tell central office staff what type of support services are needed.

•Provide a continuum of services to meet the educational needs of students with disabilities

Site-based management could be the vehicle by which the district and the school are able to divorce the intensity of the needed support services from the educational setting in which the services are delivered be that a regular or special education classroom – a concern expressed by Hardman, Huefner, McDonnell, and Welch (1991). In other words, a variety of appropriate, needed services to students with disabilities can be provided within the regular education classroom.

•Exhibit appropriate leadership qualities

Whether or not individual principals believe that site-based management is an appropriate method of restructuring schools or whether the least restrictive environment and inclusion are appropriate methods of delivering services to students with disabilities, they must *act* in a manner which is consistent with those assumptions. Burrello and Sage (1979), Hoy and Miskel (1991), Blokker (1991), and Roueche and Baker (1986) comment on leadership qualities. Some of these qualities that these authors deem essential are:

* flexibility of control
* cohesiveness within the organization
* strong commitment to the school mission and its supporting assumptions
* recognition of staff and stakeholders
* problem-solving through collaboration and consensus-building
* effective delegation
* focus on teaching and learning (Roueche & Baker, 1986, p. 11)
* willingness to be a risk-taker
* inquisitive
* a willingness to face issues

* an ethical, moral, humanist value system.

Changes in special education policies and procedures are necessary to enable effective special education practices in the context of site-based management.

Rationale

Special education procedures and policies defined according to PL 94-142 have been sources of concerns to educators (Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987; Will, 1986; Yates, 1982). Yates (1982) suggested the results of legal requirements and the ambiguity in the ownership of special education students and teachers include: poor integration of students; difficulty with transfer and linkage between service delivery elements; budgeting and accountability confusions; unclear responsibility; conflicts associated with community and parents; difficulty with inservice and staff development requirements, etc. He further suggested the need for organizational changes at both district and school levels to better accommodate the needs of students with disabilities. Other calls for changes may vary in point in time, the focus is basically on the legislative and policy changes necessary to address the ineffective practices listed above (Burrello & Sage, 1979; Will, 1986).

Recommendations

•*Authorize necessary changes to be consistent with those expectations for which administrators will be held accountable*

As problematic as special education practices may be, models for legislation governing the implementation of site-based decision-making hold regular school administrators accountable for the outcome of all students including students with disabilities (Senate Bill 1 as cited in Texas Education Agency Advisory Committee on Site-Based Decision Making, 1992). And, though accountable, regular school administrators are not provided definite power to make changes needed in site-

based decision-making (Johnson, 1991). This may prove particularly cumbersome in circumstances where federal and state laws and policies constrain the authority of local districts.

Site–based management should integrate regular and special education thereby eliminating the dual systems that currently serve children.

Rationale

The implicit vision of P.L. 94–142 and its revision, P.L. 101-476, was of completeness and inclusion of special education programs in the regular school operation. More than ten years later, the implementation of these public laws still promotes categorization, exclusion, and a second–class system of educating students with disabilities (Wang, Reynolds & Walberg, 1988). More students are being labeled than ever before, with an overall growth from a little more than 8 percent of the total student population to nearly 11 percent (Ferguson, 1989; Will, 1986). Over 82 percent of learning disabled students are still being served in the resource classroom (TEA, 1988).

Integration is fundamental, constant, and a part of people's professional, personal and daily life. It requires more than a workshop or a disability awareness day. Parents, community members and school personnel must become aware of the benefits of integration. Demchak and Drinkwater (1992) state the benefits for integration of students with disabilities are many. They are better prepared for the real world, interactions are more appropriate, the communication between peers and family members increases, and it provides opportunities for families to interact with normally developing students. It is important for parents to feel good and to see that their child can learn even if "retarded" (Sullivan & Lewis, 1990). Both parents and non–disabled students benefit by building an understanding, sensitivity to, and

tolerance of individual differences, despite a neurological damage or delay.

Recommendations

•*Develop, implement and evaluate appropriate and innovative methods of delivering services to students with disabilities*

Examples of such innovative, appropriate service delivery models include:

* Teaming of regular and special education teachers to teach both disabled and regular students (Boston, 1991, p.5)
* Providing training to lead to dual certifications for regular education teachers
* Cooperative teaching techniques that place students in random ability groups
* Provision of an aide and therapist in regular classroom in which a student with disabilities is enrolled
* Use of consultants
* Development of cooperative service delivery systems between several site-based management schools (Thomas, 1991, p. 16).

•*Promote the integration of special education and regular education*

Regular and special education teachers will need to become comfortable with the entire range of student abilities and disabilities. Teachers should provide opportunities for all children to be more open–minded and accepting of students with disabilities (Demchak & Drinkwater, 1992). The changing population of our students calls for new beliefs about program structure, new standards for curriculum and instruction, and new attitudes that promote equal access of learning for all students.

•*Redefine student outcome assessment systems to include all students*

Educators will need inservice on developing non-traditional assessment instruments, since students of special populations are frequently not included in current assessment practices. An additional consideration that must be re-examined

is the mis-interpretation and mis-application of data across disadvantaged and language minority populations (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988). The development of pre- and post-assessment procedures must be formative as well as summative for all students. Traditional forms of assessment should be set aside, and new unbiased and non-discriminatory forms of assessment need to be developed. "Individual data should be collected continuously as well as to collect contextual data on instructional services, resources, and other factors that may affect student learning" (Cortez, 1992, p. 3). The use of student portfolios is also an option to assess the whole child. Portfolios might include standardized and criterion-based measures, as well as measures of functional and adaptive behaviors across settings, indicators of involvement and participation in various school activities and organizations (Kober, 1992).

Site-based management should result in improved quality of programming and services to students with special needs.

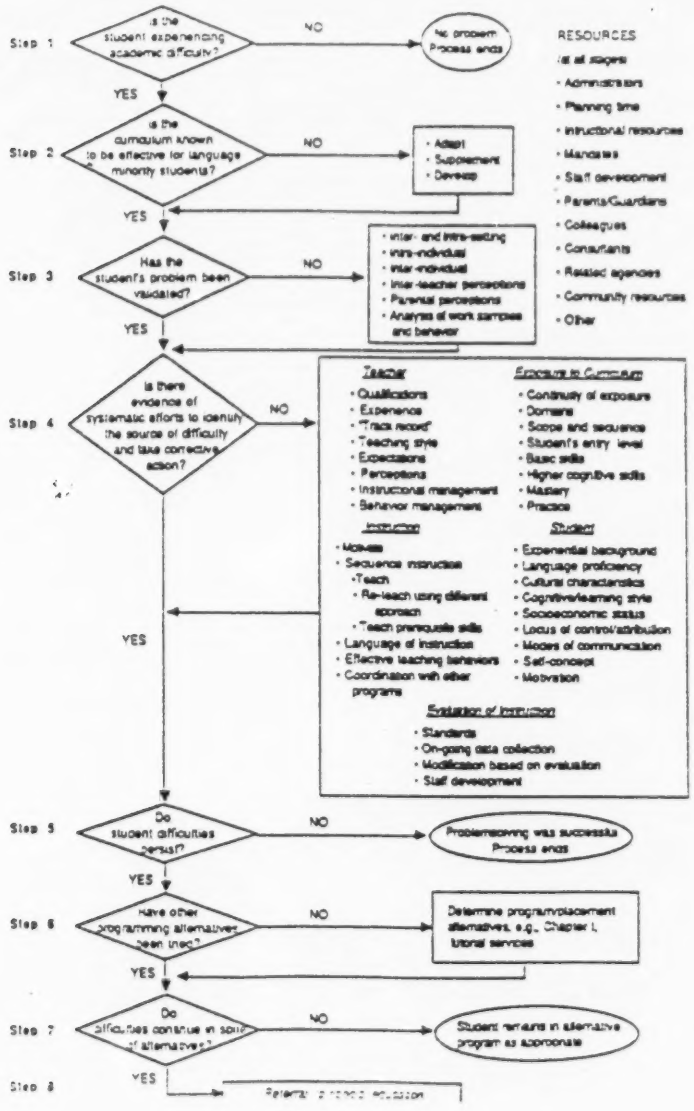
Rationale

Site-based management makes it possible to decentralize services and integrate them at school sites where they will best serve the needs of the staff and students with disabilities. Site-based management teams are frequently called campus improvement teams in Texas. Expanding these teams to include special education personnel, such as an educational diagnostician, counselor, occupational therapist, speech therapist and special education teacher will enable effective on-site assessments and will expand the menu of educational programming. By providing different perspectives and a variety of technical expertise to school problems, both regular and special education programs benefit from this expansion. Primary benefits include reduction of inappropriate referrals, quicker provision of services (i.e. assessment, placement, support service), comprehensive and integrated

educational planning, and more appropriate programming and support services since they are designed to fit the specific needs of individual students in their environment and community.

One method of improving quality of services in programming to special needs populations is adopting a prereferral process (see Figure 4) like the one developed by Garcia and Ortiz (1988) .

Figure 4. Preventing Inappropriate Placements of Language Minority Students in Special Education: A Prereferral Process.



Garcia, S. B., & Ortiz, A. A. (1988). Preventing inappropriate referrals of language minority students to special education. New Focus, 5, 10-20.

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The basic process includes three major steps. First, the referring teacher meets with the campus improvement team to discuss the problem. During step 1 the following questions are asked:

1. Is the student experiencing academic difficulty?
2. Is the curriculum known to be effective for language minority students?
3. Has the student's problem been validated?
4. Is there evidence of systematic efforts to identify the source of difficulty and take corrective action? (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988, p. 3)

Answers to these questions are provided in both terms of both teacher and student characteristics and behaviors. Garcia and Ortiz (1988) recommend examining the five major areas of: teacher, exposure to curriculum, instruction, student, and evaluation of instruction to accurately identify the source of the problem, to know the type of interventions required for development, and to know where to intervene. Teacher qualifications and skills, student cultural and/or linguistic characteristics, student work, curriculum materials, lessons plans, instructional techniques and observational and evaluation data are just some of the sources of data which should be brought to the team and analyzed to determine what the specific problem is and where it lies.

The answers to these questions will identify the type of learning problem and categorize it as being either attributed to lack of accommodation to individual differences which is labeled a Type I problem ; achievement difficulties which is Type II; or to a major disorder which is considered Type III (Adelman, 1970). For example, a Type I problem could be providing English only instruction to a limited English proficient student who needs bilingual instruction. Often, Type I problems are due to the incongruence between the student's cultural and/or linguistic differences and the classroom environment and/or instructional methods. A Type II

problem is illustrated by achievement difficulties that are found in the student but cannot be attributed to a disability. For instance, the child who has not yet learned to read but has excessive absences as a probable cause of lack of reading. Type III problems are major disorders which interfere with the teaching-learning process and thus require significant specialized intervention; Type III problems are rare.

After answering the questions in step 1, the campus improvement team along with the teacher would develop an action plan as step 2 in the prereferral process. The teacher would return to the classroom and implement recommended changes and/or strategies with the assistance of members from the campus improvement, specifically the diagnostic and support staff. The team observes and gathers data on changes and/or implementation and evaluates the effectiveness of interventions. If interventions are unsuccessful and new ones are tried and still no improvements are observed in the student, step 3 is implemented.

In step 3 all attempts and modifications have failed to show improvement in student achievement. Consequently, the teacher returns to the campus improvement team and the following questions are asked:

1. Do student difficulties persist?
2. Have other programming alternatives been tried?
3. Do difficulties continue in spite of alternatives? (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988, p. 3)

If the answers to these three questions are affirmative, then the student is referred for assessment to special education by the campus improvement team.

Recommendations

•*Sensitize and convey knowledge to campus improvement teams about students with disabilities and minority students with cultural and/or linguistical differences*

This team will examine not only general school problems, but special education

referrals and problems and will provide a large amount of varied expertise to the solutions of these problems. Identification of types of learning problems will provide teachers with insight into regular and disabled students' strengths and weaknesses and cultural and linguistic differences. This identification is especially critical since demographics reveal that 47% of the Texas school population in 1990 was minority, and by the year 2010 is expected to rise to 57% (Hodgkinson, 1985). This is just one example of a trend which is developing nationally. Demographers are predicting that by the the year 2020 the black and Hispanic population in this country will increase by 200% and 300% respectively. Furthermore, by the year 2000, 40% of school age children will be from ethnic/racial minority groups. In addition, many of these children will come from homes of poverty (Davis & McCaul, 1991).

Children represent the single largest and fastest growing poverty group in the United States, nearly 20% live with an educational disadvantage (Davis & McCaul, 1991). Being a member of a minority group significantly increases the chances of a child being poor. In 1987, 39% of all Hispanic children were considered poor, and 45% of all Black children (Davis & McCaul, 1991).

•*Develop and implement new methods to meet the needs of a changing student population*

The use of the prereferral process and follow-up consultation, coaching, and modeling will create a "collaborative learning community" (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988, p. 2). Concrete, specific strategies can be provided to teachers regarding curriculum, resources, instructional methods, and behavior management. Immediate follow-up through classroom observations and consultation can be provided to teachers; follow-up will be provided as long as necessary. All members of the learning community will increase their problem-solving and

instructional skills. Different members of the team will bring expertise and knowledge to the process. This will reduce the number of inappropriate referrals to special education by identifying those problems which are due to cultural and linguistic differences and not disabilities (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988).

• *Move schools away from a medical model and promote the acceptance and inclusion of children's differences, not their deficiencies*

The concepts of assessment, diagnosis and treatment, disorders and interventions are all terms from the medical model. It suggests that the purpose of special education is to "fix" the student. The difficulties result from the student, not from the interaction with the school. When schools focus on all students' strengths, and move away from categorization and deficiencies, all students can belong to and be apart of the school's community and participate in the community.

Ecological assessment is one approach that incorporates and allows for differences. This is crucial to determine the adaptive and functional skills of the student with special needs (Daugherty, 1975; Erickson, 1981). By assessing the student in his or her school as well as in the community, this will provide educators with a more complete and accurate picture of the capabilities of the child. By using data collected during the prereferral process, a comprehensive evaluation of the child's abilities and limitations will be considered so that other options are explored and tried prior to being qualified for special education. The data collected in this comprehensive evaluation will prevent Type I and II errors from occurring and for those students identified as Type III learning problems, referral, placement, and delivery of services will occur at a quicker rate (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988).

•*Lead staff development and training to design more appropriate educational services*

Labeling of students, especially in the categories of learning disabled, speech

handicapped and mentally retarded will decrease. Currently, there is an overrepresentation of minority students, in special education; 11% compared to 2% in the general population (Ortiz & Yates, 1983). As mentioned earlier, Hispanic and black populations are increasing and they are overrepresented in special education; this may be a factor in the overall increase of students served through special education. The category of learning disabled students, which increased 119% from 1975-1985 (Davis & McCaul, 1991), reflects the overidentification of all students and lack of appropriate placements.

• *Involve both parents and professionals in providing educational services*

Quality individualized educational programming and services designed to fit the needs of children with disabilities in local communities will be developed collaboratively by school personnel, parents, and community members (Gittell, 1975). Several advantages from collaboration are: instructional techniques, behavior management programs, use of adaptive/assistive devices, and therapy will be reinforced not only at school, but at home, thus creating a twenty-four hour learning environment and providing a continuity of services. Students will gain and assimilate skills more quickly than if skills are taught in isolation. Additional advantages include parents having easier access, in a shorter amount of time, to support service personnel; this will assist family members in feeling more informed and more effective, and better prepared to handle the cognitive and emotional stresses of raising a child with special needs (Deal, Dunst, & Trivette, 1989).

•*Create an environment where innovation flourishes*

Innovation should increase since authority, responsibility and budgeting will be delegated to interdisciplinary campus improvement teams (Gittell, 1975). School sites will offer a menu of special education programming and services. Diagnostic and support personnel on campus improvement teams will assist these services

(Gittell, 1975). For instance, new models of service delivery, relevant curriculum to fit the specific needs of disabled students in a particular community, curriculum based assessment and creative ways to obtain adaptive/assistive devices will be developed. Campuses will need to work together cooperatively to devise ways of sharing support personnel since diagnostic and support personnel available at each local site could require exorbitant sums of money (Avery, Castro, & Clark, 1975; Daugherty, 1975).

•*Assist and facilitate the coordination of curriculum across campuses*

This will prevent fragmentation of educational programming. This will also provide continuous and systematic evaluation of district-wide programming and effectiveness. But a balance must be sought in order for truly individualized educational programs and services to be designed by campus improvement teams to fit the unique needs of disabled students in their communities.

•*Provide time for those problems which may require more long-term solutions*

The individualized planning for all students will likely cause a rise in student achievement, skills and overall learning. When teachers identify a problem and create and implement solutions that lead to student success, the job satisfaction of teachers will increase (Blokker, 1991). Campus Improvement Teams must also be cautious to not apply too much pressure on teachers to raise students' scores as this may lead to unethical practices such as providing students with test answers or not reporting scores of special education students. The problems were not created overnight and neither are the solutions. "Proceed vigorously with caution," is the advice that Texas Commissioner of Education, Lionel "Skip" Meno, recommends (McClaran, 1992, p. 8).

•*Conduct evaluation of special education programming, services and personnel as part of the site-based management process to ensure quality*

Time, personnel, training, and support will ensure systematic and continuous evaluation so that quality will be high at each campus as well as throughout the district. Special education support personnel can provide leadership and assistance across campuses to obtain and interpret data. This emphasis on evaluation will ensure that site-based management is not just paid "lip service". "Consistent, stable and long-term commitment" is required throughout the implementation of site-based management (McClaran, 1992, p. 1).

As a result of innovative educational programs flourishing, a wide diversity of programming and instructional services will result. The efficacy of these programs and services must be continually evaluated to ensure that equity, efficiency, and quality remain high.

Conclusion

The policies and recommended strategies presented in this paper for implementing site-based management and the inclusion of special education represent ideal practices. The authors realize that these practices could not be implemented immediately since campus improvement teams will have to first learn how to govern, budget, hire and plan for schools. However, after staff have become seasoned in these governing processes other facets like the recommended changes should be incorporated. If these recommended policies are not immediately implemented then special education services should remain centralized so that children with disabilities do not suffer rather than decentralizing them without the necessary structural mechanisms (i.e., money, personnel, law,) in place. To do less would doom children with disabilities to injury and failure.

The authors also realize that these policies cannot be implemented overnight or

even in a year, but that it may take as much as 3-5 years before these behaviors become standard practices and the behavior of choice which reflects the subsequent change in attitudes. To date bandaid approaches to a failing system have been unsuccessful. Only through professional growth, dedication, and commitment to ideals of inclusion, equity, and quality can site-based management be a means to improve achievement for all students.

Appendix A: Evaluation Framework

A school that would identify itself as being in the initiation phase may have many of the following characteristics.

1. The school's current practices reflect the "status quo" policy of the district.
2. Mainstreaming or accommodation of students in regular education is based on individual needs as identified in the IEP.
3. Policy regarding placement of students in special education or in the mainstream is operationalized one student at a time
4. Finance may often be viewed as a barrier to change, for example, with the implementation of least restrictive environment may be viewed as to costly.
5. Organization factors, such as regional service centers, may be remote in terms of distance and willingness to provide direct or collaborative services.
6. Advocacy is identified by stakeholders sharing information in a reciprocal fashion. Resorting to litigation is viewed as a last resort.
7. Implementation is on a child–by–child basis as a function of the IEP committee, rather than as a systemic policy position.
8. Parental values are highly influential in determining the delivery of service, for example, a resource room placement as opposed to a placement in a self–contained/integrated classroom.
9. Sources of knowledge for the district are often localized in a regional service center or nearby institution of higher education.
10. Government mandates and accompanying rules and regulations are the basis for implementation of services to students with disabilities; the letter of the law is followed, not necessarily the total spirit of the law (Hasazi, Schattman, Johnston, & Liggett, 1992).

A school that would identify itself as being in the implementation phase may have many of the following characteristics.

1. The school's current practices reflect movement toward newly targeted policy statements.
2. Mainstreaming or accommodation of students in regular education occurs in the neighborhood school and in some regular education classes.
3. Policy regarding placement of students is operationalized within the context of general education and special education reform. For example, the belief that all children can learn, means all.
4. Finance is no longer viewed as a barrier, but rather creative approaches are implemented to identify and/or re–allocate resources.
5. Organizational factors, such as regional service centers, do not provide direct support of student services, but are resources for staff development and inservice programs.
6. Advocacy of innovative special education service delivery methods may have out–paced the state regulatory agency. Waivers may be possible solutions.
7. Implementation of services for students with disabilities is systematic; teachers and principals follow the lead of the superintendent and the director of special education.
8. Meeting the educational needs of all children is shaped as a staff value through the use of techniques such as collaboration and consultation.
9. Sources of knowledge beyond localized agencies are sought.
10. Governmental influence in the form of technical assistance and model program development becomes increasing significant over that of the state. The over–riding belief of "taking care of one's own" is more powerful than "mandates" (Hasazi, Schattman, Johnston, & Liggett, 1992).

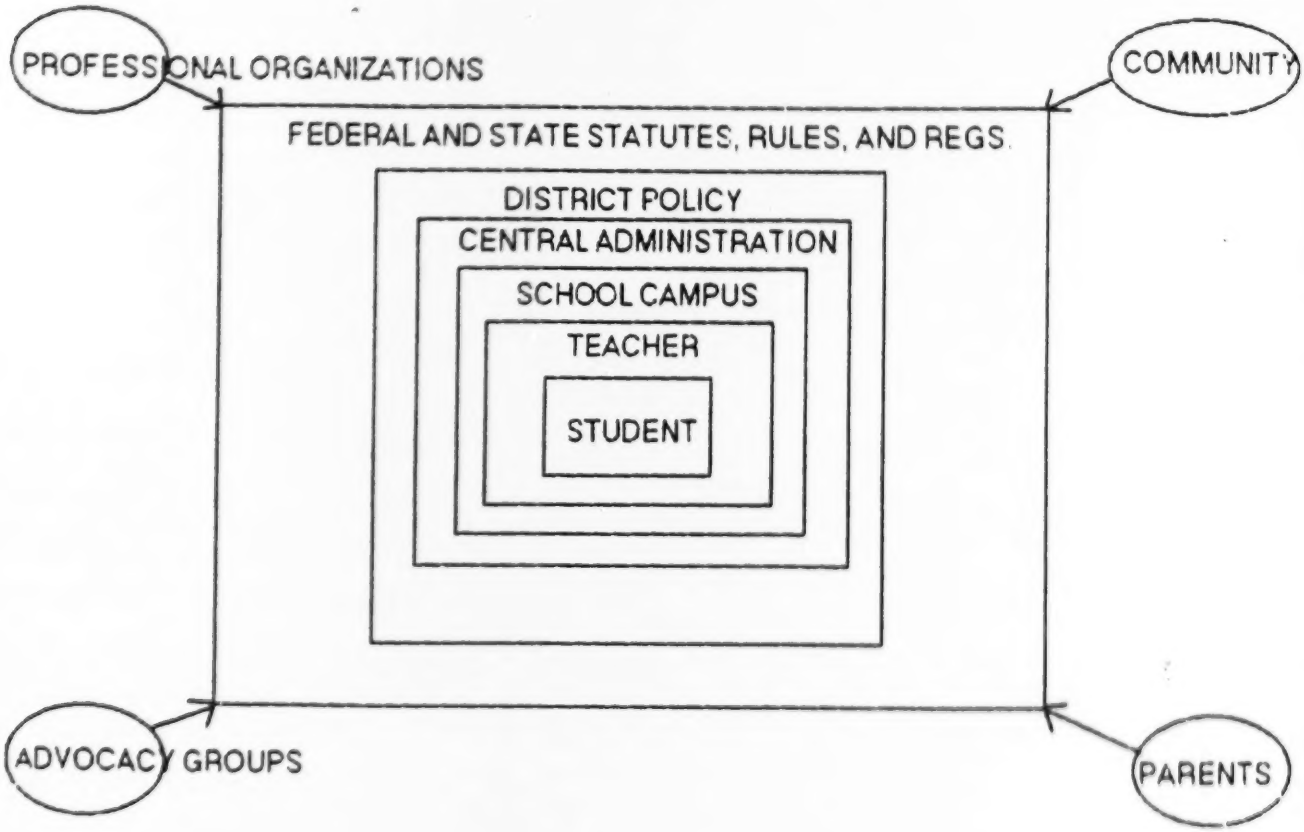
A school that would identify itself as being in the continuation phase may have many of the following characteristics.

1. The school's current practices and policies are embedded in the ongoing operation of the school. Compliance is not the focus, it is the underlying assumption upon which all educational activities are based.
2. Mainstreaming or accommodation of students occurs in the regular education classroom through the delivery of special education support and services to identify students with disabilities within those classes.
3. Policy regarding placement of students is operationalized within the context of regular education (i.e., inclusion).
4. Sources of finance are expanded beyond the local tax base to include external funding and resources.
5. Organizational factors at this stage are characterized by flexibility and energy.
6. All stakeholders are recognized as advocates for children with disabilities, because adversarial relationships have been defused.
7. Implementation of services is provided in the regular education classroom within the neighborhood school. Educating all children is the common vision of all stakeholders.
8. An articulate shared vision statement is the underlying foundation for changes in curriculum and instruction.
9. Sources of knowledge beyond the field of education are sought.
10. Governmental influence is minimal. Moral leadership and values transcend the need for statutory mandates (Hasazi, Schattman, Johnston, & Liggett, 1992).

Appendix B

A Framework for Site-Based Management Policy Development and Site-Based Management For Special Education

The graphic below shows the place of policy development within the educational enterprise. This framework provides the general structure for the development of policy statements and implications for special education.



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